



Efficient simultaneous removal enrofloxacin and Cr(VI) via activation of peroxymonosulfate over defect-rich C-MoS₂-Fe

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ABSTRACT

Carbon-doped MoS₂-Fe (C-MoS₂-Fe-x) was synthesized induced by the introduction of ethylene glycol using hydrothermal method. Benefitting from the synergistic effect of 1 T/2 H mixed phase and abundant defects, C-MoS₂-Fe-x had an excellent ability to simultaneous remove enrofloxacin (ENR) and Cr(VI) via peroxymonosulfate (PMS) activation (C-MoS₂-Fe-x/PMS). The most effective C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS showed a removal rate constant of 0.200 min⁻¹ and 0.110 min⁻¹ for ENR and Cr(VI), which were 15.4 and 8.5 times as high as those of the MoS₂-Fe/PMS, respectively. Combined with quenching experiments, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), and electrochemical experiments, singlet oxygen and electron-transfer can be illustrated for synergistic removal. C-MoS₂-Fe-2 exhibits high mineralization capacity and is structurally stable in use with minimal metal leaching. It is noteworthy that C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS displayed an outstanding purification effect on real pharmaceutical wastewater. This work provides new ideas for designing efficient and green non-homogeneous catalysts for Fenton-like systems to deal with composite pollution wastewater.

1. Introduction

In recent years, the environmental pollution resulting from organic compounds and toxic heavy metals in water has attracted more and more attention. Pharmaceutical wastewater is a serious water pollution, owing to its high toxicity, difficult degradation, and persistent [1,2]. Enrofloxacin (ENR) is a third-generation fluoroquinolone antibiotic with a good bactericidal effect, mainly used in healthcare, animal husbandry, and agriculture [3]. Moreover, Cr(VI) is regarded as a toxic heavy metal ion, exhibiting highly toxic and carcinogenic effects in humans and animals at very low concentrations [4]. The co-existence of Cr(VI) and antibiotics is a common phenomenon in pharmaceutical wastewater [5, 6]. Due to their different molecular structures and physicochemical properties, it is difficult to remove them simultaneously and effectively. Currently, techniques for removing Cr(VI) and antibiotics include adsorption, biodegradation, and chemical precipitation [7,8]. However, these techniques for removing complex pollutants have the

disadvantage of being less efficient and prone to secondary contamination. Therefore, it is necessary to develop a green and efficient treatment technology to achieve simultaneous removal of ENR and Cr(VI) efficiently.

Persulfate-based Fenton-like reactions were regarded as an effective technology on simultaneous removal antibiotics and Cr(VI) [9–11]. The generated reactive oxygen species (ROs), including sulfate (SO₄^{•-}), hydroxyl (•OH), peroxide (•O₂⁻) radicals, and singlet oxygen (¹O₂) are used for the degradation of organic pollutants [12,13]. While the abundance of electrons and Fe²⁺ promotes the reduction of Cr(VI) [14, 15]. Co-based catalysts are considered as the main activators for PMS activation. However, the leaching of highly toxic Co²⁺ is still unavoidable, which seriously influences its long-term practical applications [16, 17]. It is necessary to develop a catalyst with excellent performance and low toxicity.

MoS₂-Fe has received great attention due to its low toxicity as well as good robustness and durability to sustain PMS activation [18–21]. MoS₂

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can promote the reduction of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} through the oxidation of Mo^{4+} to Mo^{6+} . Dong et al. prepared $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ using a hydrothermal method for the removal of organic pollutants by activated PMS [22]. Despite showing good PMS activation ability, the reaction process required additional energy or the addition of a large amount of PMS. In addition, the performance of $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ activated PMS in the reduction of Cr(VI) is limited. This may be attributed to the poor electrical conductivity, low electron transport capacity, and limited active sites of MoS_2 [23].

It has been reported that defects were essential in modulating the catalytic property of metal sulfides [24,25]. Sulfur defects in MoS_2 not only increase the exposure of Mo active sites and facilitate the reduction of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} , but also directly activate PMS to generate large amounts of $^1\text{O}_2$ [26]. It was shown that introducing carbon atoms into MoS_2 not only constructs abundant defects to increase the amount of active sites, but also induces the transfer of 2 H phase MoS_2 to 1 T phase, and the mixed-phase MoS_2 has a better electrical conductivity. Tian et al. prepared C- MoS_2 using a hydrothermal method, which demonstrated excellent hydrogen precipitation activity [27]. Therefore, carbon doping Fe- MoS_2 has great potential in activating PMS for simultaneous removal antibiotics and Cr(VI) .

Herein, ethylene glycol-induced carbon-doped $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ (C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$) was ingeniously designed as catalysts to activate peroxymonosulfate (C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x/PMS}$) for simultaneous removal of ENR and Cr(VI) . Ethylene glycol was used as both a carbon source and morphology modifier to control the catalyst formation. The performance of catalysts activated PMS for efficient decontamination was investigated using Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations and experiments. The synergistic effects of 1 T/2 H mixed phase and abundant sulfur defects on improving the catalyst performance were systematically investigated by quenching experiments, EPR tests, and electrochemical experiments. The reusability and stability of the catalysts were evaluated. In addition, the effectiveness of the system on actual pharmaceutical wastewater was assessed. This study gives new ideas for the development of efficient non-homogeneous catalysts and new strategies for their use in Fenton-like technologies to improve the efficacy of the treatment of composite polluted wastewater.

2. Materials and methods

The information of materials and water samples involved in the experiment, catalyst characterization, measurement of ENR concentration and its intermediates, measurement of Cr(VI) concentration, measurement of PMS concentration, radical species measurement, toxicity tests, and analytic methods were listed in Text S1 and Text S3–8 (details in the [Supplementary Material](#)).

2.1. Synthesis of C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$

Typically, 0.5 mmol $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24}\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 20 mmol $\text{CS}(\text{NH}_2)_2$, and 0.1 mmol $\text{FeSO}_4\cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were added in a 40 mL mixture solution of ethylene glycol and water. After stirring for 2 h, the homogeneous solution was transferred to an autoclave then heated to 210 °C for 24 h. After centrifugation, the obtained products were washed using distilled water and ethanol. The yielded sample was obtained after being vacuum-dried at 80 °C overnight, and it is denoted as C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$. Herein, $x = 1, 2$, and 3, respectively, corresponding to different ethylene glycol-to-water volume ratios (1:1, 2:1, and 3:1). Additionally, MoS_2 , C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-2}$, and $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ were synthesized using similar methods to C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$, more information was exhibited in Text S2.

2.2. Evaluation of catalytic activity

The removal of ENR and Cr(VI) was used to evaluate the catalytic activity of the samples. 20 mg of catalyst is added to a solution (100 mL) containing ENR (10 mg L^{-1}) and Cr(VI) (5 mg L^{-1}). The mixture was

stirred at room temperature for 30 min to reach adsorption equilibrium. Then PMS was added to start the reaction. 1 mL sample was collected at regular intervals while quencher of methanol (0.1 mL) was added, and then filtered. 1 M H_2SO_4 and NaOH were employed for the pH adjustment.

2.3. Theoretical calculations

DFT calculations are performed using first principles in the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) [28] formulation. A projection-enhanced wave (PAW) [29,30] potential is used to describe the ionic core and valence electrons are taken into account using a plane-wave basis set with a kinetic energy cut-off of 520 eV. The GGA+ U method was used for the calculations. The effective Hubbard U value for molybdenum was set to 4.814 eV, and the Gaussian smearing method was used to allow for partial occupancy of the Kohn-Sham orbitals with a width of 0.05 eV. The electron energies are considered to be self-consistent when the energy variation is less than 10^{-6} eV. The geometry optimization is considered to be convergent when the energy change is less than 0.05 eV \AA^{-1} . The Brillouin zone integrals were sampled for one structure using the $2 \times 2 \times 1$ Monkhorst-Pack k-point sampling method. Finally, the energy of adsorption (E_{ads}) was calculated as $E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{ad/sub}} - E_{\text{ad}} - E_{\text{sub}}$, where $E_{\text{ad/sub}}$, E_{ad} , and E_{sub} are the total energy of the optimized adsorbent/-substrate system, the adsorbent in the structure, and the clean substrate, respectively.

Fukui function calculations were used to predict the vulnerable sites on ENR molecules, more information about specific calculation methods was found in Text S9.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterizations of C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$

The preparation of C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ is carried out by a hydrothermal method via adjusting the volume ratio of ethylene glycol and water (Fig. 1a). In this process, ethylene glycol is involved in the reaction as a carbon source and reducing agent. The quantity of carbon in C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ was listed in Table S1, the carbon content increased as ethylene glycol dosage increased. In addition, ethylene glycol as a reducing agent can slow down the release of S, which is favorable to the formation of C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ morphology.

SEM and HRTEM were used to observe the morphologies and microstructures of the catalysts. C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ showed spherical-like nanostructures composed of nanosheets (Fig. 1b-c and Fig. S1). Moreover, as the $V_{\text{ethylene glycol}}: V_{\text{water}}$ increases from 1:1, 2:1 to 3:1, the particle diameter of the resulting C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ increases from 430 (C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-1}$), 500 (C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2}$) to 640 nm (C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-3}$). This may be due to the addition of ethylene glycol, which alters the diffusive and reactive action of the reagents [31,32]. The TEM image (Fig. 1d, represented by C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2}$) also shows that the nanosphere is assembled from nanosheets. Moreover, the elemental mapping analyses reveal that Mo (Fig. 1d₁), S (Fig. 1d₂), C (Fig. 1d₃), and Fe (Fig. 1d₄) elements distribute homogeneously throughout the nanosphere. The HRTEM image in Fig. 1e revealed that the interlayer spacing was 0.94 nm and 0.62 nm for the 1 T phase (002) and 2 H phase (002), respectively [33,34]. Furthermore, the interruption of the crystal streaks suggested the presence of a large number of defects (marked by white circles) in the sample [35]. As shown in Fig. 1f and g, the octahedral 1 T phase and the trigonal prismatic 2 H phase structures can be observed. These results indicated that a 1 T/2 H mixed phase exist in C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$. However, no recognizable lattice of iron species was found in the images of HRTEM, probably attributed to the low amount of iron on the catalyst surface. HAADF-STEM was then performed to observe the dispersion of iron the catalyst of C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2}$ at the atomic scale. As displayed in Fig. S1a, the existence of atomic Fe (circled in red) was observed for C- $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2}$

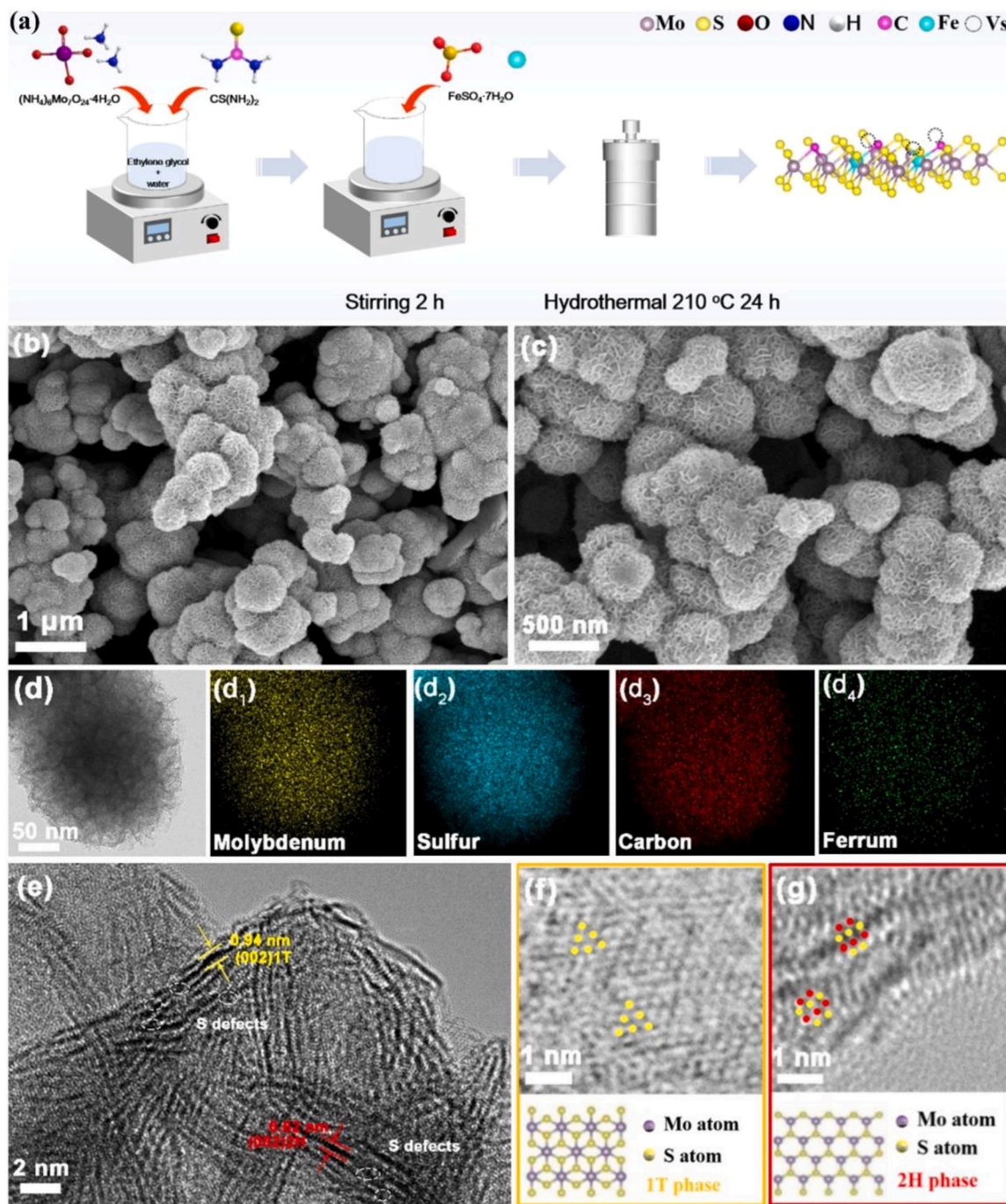


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the synthesis process (a). SEM images of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 (b, c). TEM image of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 (d), corresponding elemental mapping images (d₁-d₄). HRTEM images of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 (e, f, g).

sample.

XRD was used to study the crystallinity and structure of the samples. As displayed in Fig. 2a, pure MoS₂ showed three characteristic peaks at 14.3°, 33.2°, and 59.0°, corresponding to (002), (100), and (110) planes of 2 H phase MoS₂ (JCPDS: 37-1492) [36], respectively. Except for two similar peaks with MoS₂ at 33.2° and 59.0°, the new characteristic peaks at 9.0° as well as 17.2° corresponding to (002) and (004) in 1 T phase of C-MoS₂-2, indicating that this part may have been converted to 1 T phase from 2 H phase [36]. Compared with MoS₂, MoS₂-Fe appeared new peaks at 37.0° and 56.7° that can be attributed to the typical peaks of FeS₂ [33]. However, in C-MoS₂-Fe-x all peaks related to FeS₂ almost disappear due to the decrease in crystallinity and the presence of the carbon layer on the surface [37]. Moreover, the characteristic peaks

were significantly broadened at 9.0°, 33.2°, and 59.0°, suggesting the 1 T/2 H mixed phase of MoS₂ and the low crystallinity due to defects, respectively [37,38].

Raman spectra was used to further explore the phase transformation. As illustrated in Fig. S2a, characteristic peaks corresponding to the E_{1g} (280.0 cm⁻¹), E_{2g}¹ (376.0 cm⁻¹), and A_{1g} (402.0 cm⁻¹) vibrations mode of 2 H phase MoS₂ were investigated for all samples [39]. Moreover, the E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} peaks of C-MoS₂-Fe-x were wider than those of MoS₂ and were slightly shifted, indicating the disordered structure in C-MoS₂-Fe-x [40,41]. Three typical peaks matching the J₁ (142.0 cm⁻¹), J₂ (225.0 cm⁻¹), and J₃ (335.0 cm⁻¹) vibrational modes of 1 T-phase MoS₂ were observed in C-MoS₂-Fe-x and C-MoS₂-2 compared to MoS₂ and MoS₂-Fe [33]. In summary, the introduction of carbon was the key factor

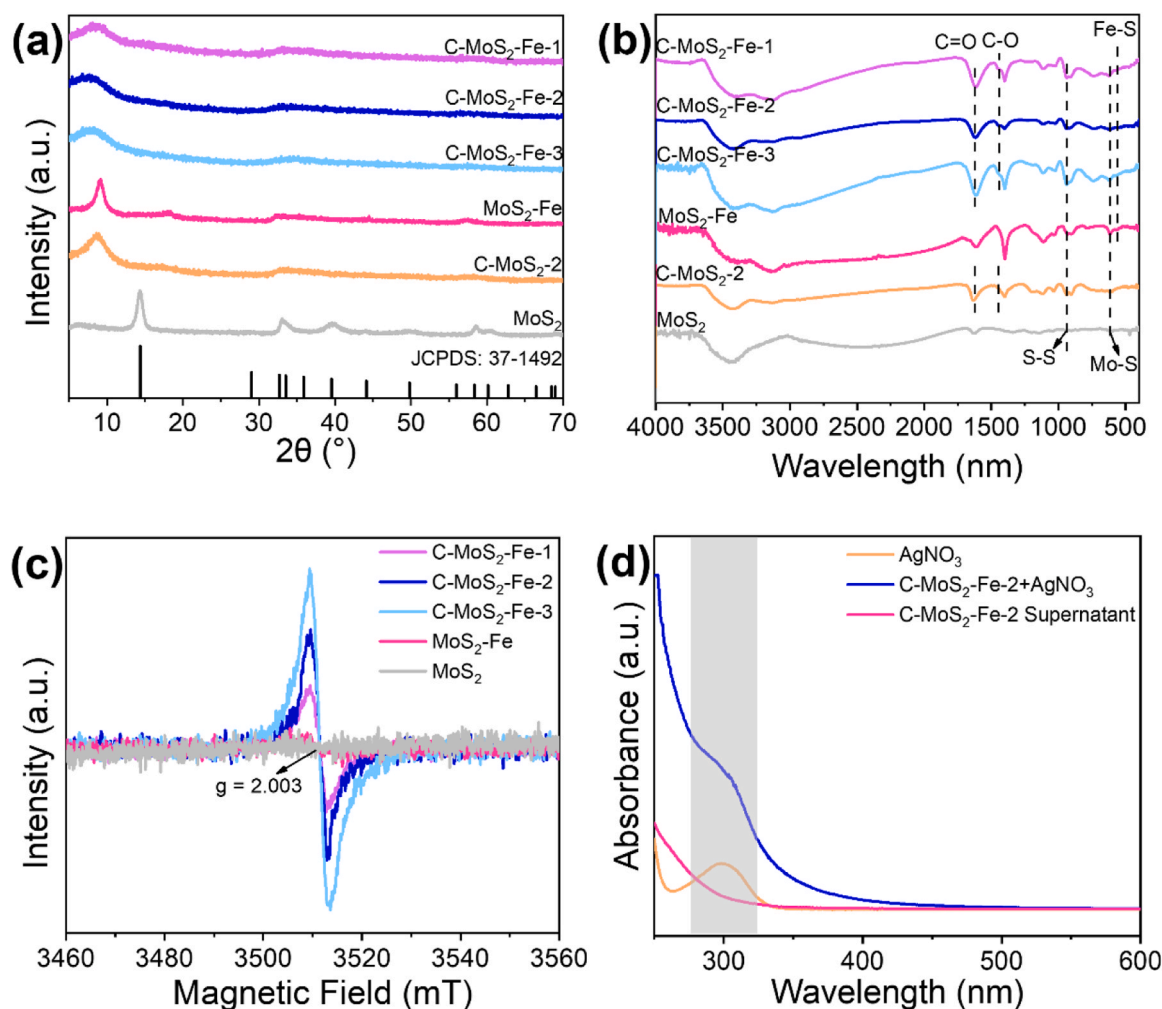


Fig. 2. XRD patterns (a), FT-IR spectra (b), and EPR spectra (c) of C-MoS₂-Fe-x, MoS₂-Fe, C-MoS₂-2, and MoS₂. UV-vis spectra of Ag⁺ system, C-MoS₂-Fe-2 supernatant system, and C-MoS₂-Fe-2 + Ag⁺ mixture system (d).

in promoting the transformation to the 1 T phase from the 2 H phase.

The functional groups in the samples were further monitored by FT-IR, as depicted in Fig. 2b. The peaks around 625 cm⁻¹ and 940 cm⁻¹ in all samples were related to the Mo-S and S-S stretching of MoS₂, respectively [41]. MoS₂-Fe showed a stretching vibrational peak around 561 cm⁻¹, which was related to the Fe-S form [33]. The same phenomenon occurred for C-MoS₂-Fe-x. Besides, abundant oxygenic functional groups such as C=O (1620 cm⁻¹) and C-O (1450 cm⁻¹) were observed in C-MoS₂-Fe-x and C-MoS₂-2 [42].

The porosity properties of different samples were analyzed by N₂ adsorption-desorption test (Fig. S2b, c). All the samples showed Type IV sorption isotherms with H3 hysteresis loops, suggesting that the samples had an unevenly distributed pore structure. The determined BET surface areas of MoS₂, MoS₂-Fe, C-MoS₂-Fe-1, C-MoS₂-Fe-2, and C-MoS₂-Fe-3 are 3.42, 5.98, 14.92, 18.90, and 10.83 m² g⁻¹, respectively; the pore sizes of samples between 2–4 nm. The incorporation of carbon resulted in a significant increase in the specific surface area of C-MoS₂-Fe-x.

The electronic structure of the catalysts was investigated by EPR spectroscopy. Generally, a stronger signal means more sulfur defects [43]. As illustrated in Fig. 2c, C-MoS₂-Fe-x showed a higher signal at $g = 2.003$ by comparison with MoS₂-Fe and MoS₂; furthermore, the intensity increased with the increase of ethylene glycol content, indicating that the introduction of carbon promotes the formation of S defects in C-MoS₂-Fe-x. Defects favored the electron transfer and thus enhanced the catalytic performance of C-MoS₂-Fe-x. Besides, the existence of sulfur defect was conducive to reducing the energy difference between

the 1 T phase and the 2 H phase and made the 1 T phase exist stably [44, 45].

The unsaturated S atoms on the catalyst could be captured to create H₂S, which would react with Ag⁺ from AgNO₃ to generate Ag₂S, so Ag₂S could be used to confirm the presence of S defects [46]. C-MoS₂-Fe-2 was used as a representative catalyst for the experiments. As displayed in Fig. 2d, the C-MoS₂-Fe-2 + AgNO₃ system exhibited an absorption peak at 310 nm similar to that of the AgNO₃ system, which corresponds to the typical peak of Ag₂S [47]. This suggests that there was a lot of unsaturated sulfur on the surface of C-MoS₂-Fe-2, and the Mo⁴⁺ active sites thus exposed were favorable for the reduction of Fe³⁺.

XPS was used to analyze the chemical components and valence states of the different sample's surface. In the Mo 3d XPS spectra (Fig. 3a), the characteristic peaks at 228.5 eV and 231.7 eV corresponded to Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2} and Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2} in 1 T phase MoS₂, respectively; the characteristic peaks at 228.9 eV and 232.7 eV corresponded to Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2} and Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2} in 2 H phase MoS₂, respectively [45]. The characteristic peak at 225.9 eV was attributed to S 2s [40]. Compared to pure MoS₂, the peaks of the 2 H phase Mo 3d_{5/2} and Mo 3d_{3/2} in the C-MoS₂-Fe-x were shifted towards a lower binding energy region, which may be due to the doping of carbon. The characteristic peak at 235.8 eV was ascribed to Mo⁶⁺ [48]. Then, the 1 T phase proportion in the C-MoS₂-Fe-x was calculated (Table S1), which was about 57.5% (C-MoS₂-Fe-1), 65.2% (C-MoS₂-Fe-2), and 63.9% (C-MoS₂-Fe-3). The introduction of carbon induced the glide of S atomic planes around the carbon-incorporated area, favoring the transition of the 2 H phase to the 1 T phase in MoS₂

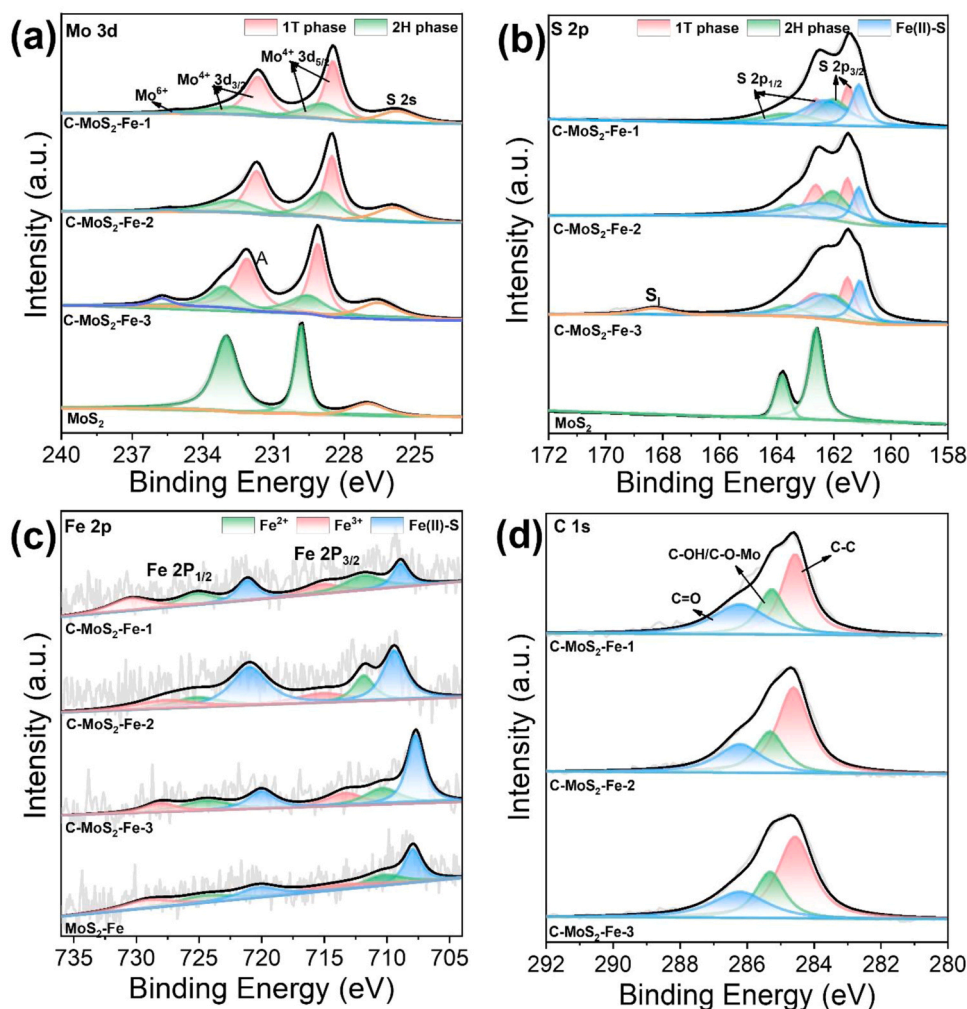


Fig. 3. High-resolution XPS spectra of Mo 3d (a), S 2p (b), Fe 2p (c), and C 1s (d) region of different samples.

[23]. However, doping too much C could result in the 1 T phase proportion decline. The S 2p region (Fig. 3b) of C-MoS₂-Fe-*x* presented the peaks at 162.0 eV and 163.6 eV for 2 H phase MoS₂ [45]; in addition, two new peaks appeared at 161.5 and 162.7 eV, corresponding to S 2p_{3/2} and S 2p_{1/2} in 1 T phase MoS₂ [47,49]. Similarly, the peaks of the 2 H phase S 2p_{3/2} and S 2p_{1/2} orbitals in the C-MoS₂-Fe-*x* were also shifted towards a lower binding energy region compared to pure MoS₂, which could be due to the introduction of carbon. Peaks near 168.9 eV in C-MoS₂-Fe-3 were S₁ (-SON-), indicating that part of the S element on the MoS₂ surface was oxidized [50]. For the Fe 2p spectrum (Fig. 3c), the peaks at 710.3, 724.5, 713.8 and 727.1 eV corresponded to Fe²⁺ 2p_{3/2}, Fe²⁺ 2p_{1/2}, Fe³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Fe³⁺ 2p_{1/2}, respectively [51]. The peaks at 707.7 and 720.2 eV belonged to Fe(II)-S [47]; while in the S 2p spectrum, the peaks located at 162.3 and 161.1 eV confirm the Fe(II)-S presence as well [51]. As shown in Fig. 3d, the peaks at 284.6 eV and 286.2 eV correspond to C-C and C=O, respectively. Moreover, the characteristic peak at 285.3 eV corresponds to C-OH/C-O-Mo, suggesting the doping of C into MoS₂, leading to some defects [37]. Meanwhile, the atomic ratio of S: Mo (Table S2) in catalysts was about 1.78: 1 (C-MoS₂-Fe-1), 1.70: 1 (C-MoS₂-Fe-2), and 1.65: 1 (C-MoS₂-Fe-3). All were lower compared to 1.82: 1 of MoS₂-Fe, suggesting that defects were ascribed to S vacancies (SVs). This was in agreement with the findings from the EPR spectrum. Table S3 illustrated the average valence of Mo in samples. C-MoS₂-Fe had a lower average valence of Mo (4.02) than that of MoS₂-Fe (4.1). This result indicated that the defect created by the introduction of C allowed more electrons to be localized to the Mo site.

Thus, more Fe³⁺ can be reduced through the electron-rich Mo sites from the defective C-MoS₂-Fe to activate PMS.

3.2. Simultaneous removal ENR and Cr(VI) using C-MoS₂-Fe-*x*

The ability of C-MoS₂-Fe-*x* activated PMS was studied systematically by simultaneous removal ENR and Cr(VI). The adsorption experiment was first performed. The concentrations of ENR (Fig. S3a) and Cr(VI) (Fig. S3b) were almost unchanged after 30 min, indicating that the solution reached the adsorption equilibrium. As exhibited in Fig. 4a and b, the removal rate of ENR was only 10.0% (30 min) with only PMS, while the concentration of Cr(VI) was hardly reduced. What's more, the C-MoS₂-Fe-*x*/PMS system showed excellent performance, which was significantly better than those of MoS₂-Fe/PMS, C-MoS₂-2/PMS, and MoS₂/PMS systems. Three C-MoS₂-Fe-*x* samples follow the removal efficiency order of C-MoS₂-Fe-1 < C-MoS₂-Fe-3 < C-MoS₂-Fe-2. In particular, C-MoS₂-Fe-2 exhibited great removal efficiencies of ENR (100.0%) and Cr(VI) (96.0%) in 30 min via activating PMS. As shown in Figs. 4c, 4d, S4a, and S4b, the reaction rate constant of ENR removal in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS ($k = 0.200 \text{ min}^{-1}$) is around 15.4 times as high as that of MoS₂-Fe/PMS ($k = 0.013 \text{ min}^{-1}$), 25.0 times as high as that of C-MoS₂-2/PMS ($k = 0.008 \text{ min}^{-1}$), and even 40 times as high as the MoS₂/PMS system ($k = 0.005 \text{ min}^{-1}$); meanwhile, the removal rate constant of Cr(VI) in the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS ($k = 0.110 \text{ min}^{-1}$) is around 8.5 times as high as the MoS₂-Fe/PMS ($k = 0.013 \text{ min}^{-1}$), 12.2 times as high as the C-MoS₂-2/PMS ($k = 0.009 \text{ min}^{-1}$), and 27.5 times as high as the MoS₂/

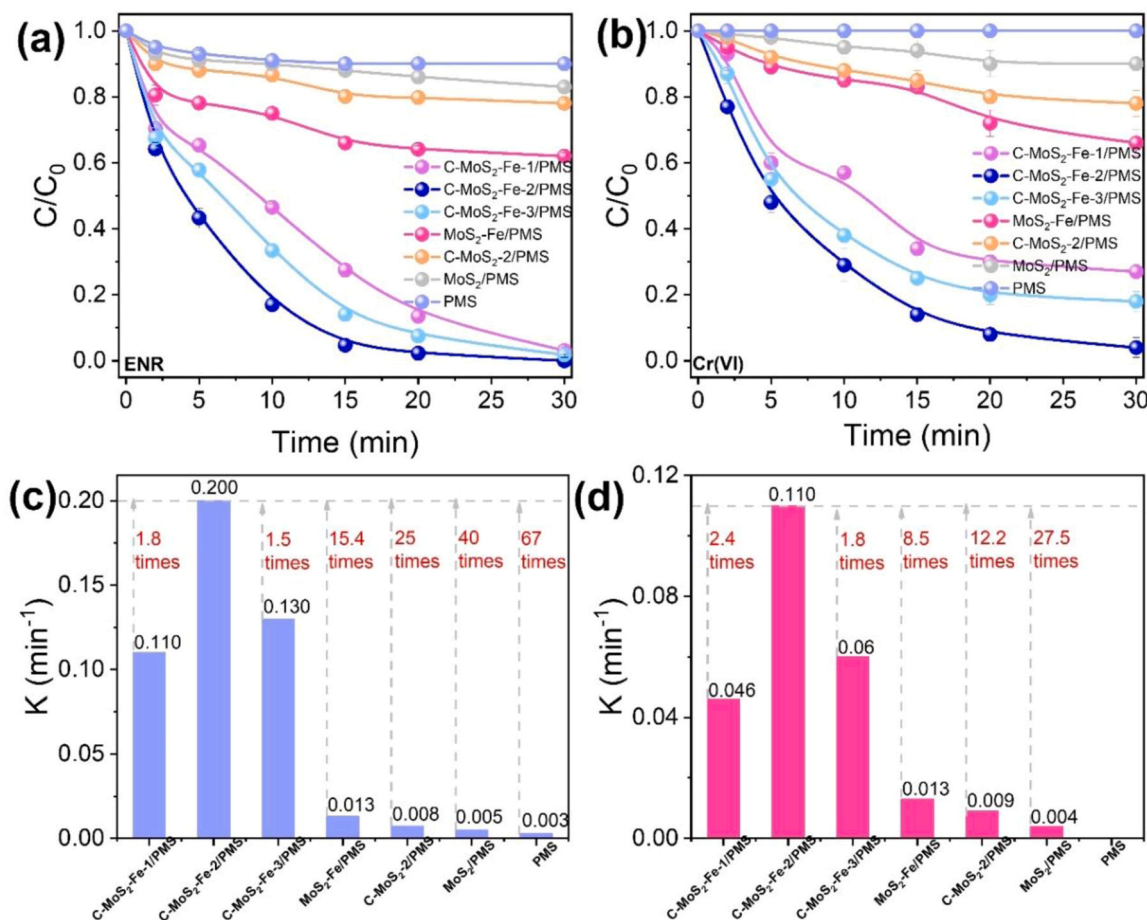


Fig. 4. The removal efficiency and kinetic rate constants under the co-existence of ENR (a, c) and Cr(VI) (b, d) by different systems. (General condition: [catalyst] = 0.2 g L⁻¹, [PMS]₀ = 0.2 mM, [ENR]₀ = 10 mg L⁻¹, [Cr(VI)]₀ = 5 mg L⁻¹, pH 3).

PMS system ($k = 0.004 \text{ min}^{-1}$). C-MoS₂-Fe- x had more active sites and exposed more Mo⁴⁺ by incorporating of carbon, benefitting the conversion of Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺. The reaction rate constant for pollutant removal by C-MoS₂-Fe-3 as the catalyst ($k = 0.130 \text{ min}^{-1}$) reduced compared with that of C-MoS₂-Fe-2, which was possibly due to the excess S defects leading to the leaching of excessive molybdenum ions from the inner of the catalyst, disrupting the catalyst structure and affecting the catalytic activity. Accordingly, C-MoS₂-Fe-2 with the highest reaction rate and great physicochemical properties was used as a catalyst for the following experiments.

Fig. S5 and S6 showed the effects of the catalyst dosage, PMS concentrations, pollutant concentrations, and pH value on the removal of ENR and Cr(VI). The reaction rate constant was enhanced with increasing amounts of catalyst (Fig. S5a, S5a', S6a, and S6a') and PMS concentrations (Fig. S5b, S5b', S6b, and S6b'). This may be due to the increase in active sites involved in the reaction, which benefited the generation of reactive oxygen species [52]. However, with further increasing their concentration or quantity, the corresponding removal rate constants increased insignificantly. These suggested that 0.2 g L⁻¹ of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 was enough to activate PMS (0.2 mM) for pollutant removal. Fig. S5c, S5c', S6c, and S6c' showed that the system could achieve removal efficiently at different pollutant concentrations, suggesting that it has a great organic pollutant removal ability. As shown in Fig. S5d, S5d', S6d, and S6d', when the pH value is 2–8, the ENR removal efficiency was all above 94.0% (30 min). Acidic conditions favoured the maintenance of Fe²⁺ state and improved catalytic properties [52]. Besides, PMS could operate over a wide pH range (2–8), which was because SO₄^{•-} could produce other reactive oxygen species under weakly alkaline conditions (Eqs. 1 and 2) [38,53]. In addition, Cr

(VI) was effectively removed at pH 2–3 (> 96.0%, $k > 0.11 \text{ min}^{-1}$); as the pH continued to increase to 4 and 6, the removal rate constants decreased significantly ($k = 0.05$ and 0.04 min^{-1} , respectively), and a further increase in pH to 8 led to a further decrease in the removal rate. Cr(VI) exists in the form of CrO₄²⁻ and HCrO₄⁻ under acidic and alkaline conditions, respectively. In acidic conditions, the reduction of the HCrO₄⁻ ion is facilitated by an excess hydrogen ion (H⁺); however, in alkaline conditions, the reduction of the CrO₄²⁻ ion is difficult to carry out due to the presence of large amounts of hydroxide ions (OH⁻), and the corresponding reaction process (Eqs. 3 and 4) [54]. Cr(III) reduced from Cr(VI) can form a precipitate under alkaline conditions and cover the active site of the catalyst, thereby reducing the Cr(VI) removal efficiency. Therefore, pH 3 was chosen as the appropriate pH.

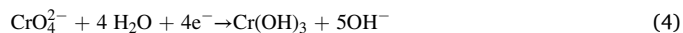
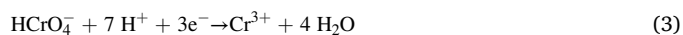


Table S4 demonstrated the effectiveness of various catalysts activated PMS for organic pollutants and Cr(VI) removal to evaluate the effectiveness of C-MoS₂-Fe-2. These results show that C-MoS₂-Fe-2 with the quickest reaction rate and best removal efficiency performs the best in comparison with other reports.

3.3. Insight into the reaction mechanism

In general, the electrochemical properties of the material are positively correlated with the ability of advanced oxidation reactions [39, 55]. The electrochemical properties of the catalysts were investigated using electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) (Fig. S7). The charge transfer resistance of the C-MoS₂-Fe-x became smaller compared to that of MoS₂-Fe, suggesting that the carbon-doped structure brings better charge transfer capability. Among all C-MoS₂-Fe-x samples, C-MoS₂-Fe-2 showed the smallest interfacial charge transfer resistance, indicating the strongest electron transfer capability. This was attributed to the fact that the 1 T phase of MoS₂ was highly electrochemically active, and C-MoS₂-Fe-2 contained the largest proportion of the 1 T phase.

Based on the analysis of physicochemical properties, structural models of MoS₂-Fe (Fig. 5a) and C-MoS₂-Fe were constructed (Fig. 5b). The main effect of C incorporation was to transform the 2 H phase MoS₂ to the 1 T phase as well as the introduction of an abundance of defects. The increase in the content of the 1 T phase and the abundance of defects improved the conductivity and the electron density of the C-MoS₂-Fe respectively, thereby increasing the electron transfer rate. To further confirm the above conclusions, DFT calculations were performed. The calculated DOS (Fig. 5c and d) showed that C-MoS₂-Fe has a narrower band gap (about 0.3 eV smaller) than MoS₂-Fe, which may be due to the energy level change caused by C introduction. In addition, the introduction of carbon atoms had a remarkable effect on increasing the charge density (Fig. 5f) compared to MoS₂-Fe (Fig. 5e). S defect contributed to the formation of electron deficient centers, leading to a potential shift of charge transfer to Mo atoms [56]. This result was in agreement with the XPS results of increasing electron density around Mo and lower average valence of Mo in defective C-MoS₂-Fe. The above results indicated that C-MoS₂-Fe possessed superior electron transfer capability and promoted the reaction kinetics.

It has been widely observed that defects can not only change the surface charge distribution but also have an effect on the adsorption energy [57]. To further determine the mechanism by which S defects promote catalytic performance, the PMS adsorption energies on MoS₂-Fe and C-MoS₂-Fe were determined by first-principles DFT calculations. Fig. 5g and h showed the MoS₂-Fe and C-MoS₂-Fe models after the adsorption of PMS. To the best of our knowledge, the PMS adsorption energy (E_{ads}) is an important criterion for assessing the decomposition of PMS [58]. The lower the PMS adsorption energy is, the easier the PMS adsorption on the catalyst is [59]. The calculated adsorption energies of PMS on MoS₂-Fe and C-MoS₂-Fe – 0.5726 and – 1.1353 eV, respectively, suggesting that adsorption of PMS on C-MoS₂-Fe was more beneficial as compared to that on MoS₂-Fe, which facilitated the reaction of PMS with C-MoS₂-Fe.

The results of EIS and DFT calculations demonstrated that the introduction of the 1 T phase and the abundance of S defects in C-MoS₂-Fe-2 improved the performance of the activated PMS.

Free radical capture and EPR experiments were conducted to determine the active components in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS at the co-existence of ENR and Cr(VI). Particularly, MA (for •OH and SO₄^{•−} with $k = 9.7 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $1.1 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively), TBA (for •OH with $k = 3.8\text{--}7.6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), BQ (for •O₂^{•−} with $k = 5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), FFA (for ¹O₂ with $k = 1.2 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), PTL (for Fe²⁺), and KBrO₃ (for e[−]) [39,60] were added as quenching agents into the C-MoS₂-Fe/PMS system, and for comparison, active components in MoS₂-Fe/PMS system were also identified.

Firstly, as shown in Fig. S8a, b, and c, after the addition of PMSO, there was no significant change in the removal of ENR and Cr(VI), and there was no production of PMSO₂. This indicated that the pollutants were not removed by the oxidation process of high valence metals. As illustrated in Fig. S8d, the removal efficiency of ENR decreased with the addition of MA, FFA, TBA, and BQ, indicating the involvement of •OH, ¹O₂, as well as •O₂^{•−} in the removal of ENR in MoS₂-Fe/PMS. The

efficiency of ENR removal decreased significantly with the addition of FFA (Fig. 6a), suggesting that ¹O₂ accounted for the removal of ENR in the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS. Meanwhile, in both systems (Fig. S8e and Fig. 6b), the removal of Cr(VI) almost did not change after adding MA, FFA, TBA, and BQ, while the removal efficiency decreased with the addition of PTL and KBrO₃. The oxidation potential of Cr₂O₇^{2−}/Cr³⁺ is 1.35 V, whereas Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ has an oxidation potential of 0.77 V and Mo⁶⁺/Mo⁴⁺ has an oxidation potential of 0.11 V. Therefore, thermodynamically Fe²⁺ preferentially reduced Cr(VI) to Cr(III). These results indicated that the Fe²⁺ and e[−] accounted for Cr(VI) reduction in both systems. However, there was a difference in the active components for ENR removal between MoS₂-Fe/PMS and C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS systems.

In order to further determine the active fractions produced for ENR removal in the systems, EPR tests were conducted. As shown in Fig. 6c, stronger signals with an intensity ratio of 1:2:2:1 occurred in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS than in other two systems, corresponding to the DMPO-•OH adducts along with DMPO-SO₄^{•−} adducts [61], but the intensities of DMPO-SO₄^{•−} adducts peaks was insignificant. In addition, weak signals of DMPO-•O₂^{•−} adducts were detected in the three systems (Fig. 6d). The •O₂^{•−} in the PMS system was probably obtained by •OH conversion [62,63]. As presented in Fig. 6e, the characteristic signal of TEMP-¹O₂ adducts with an intensity ratio of 1:1:1 was much higher in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS than in other two systems, suggesting a higher amount of ¹O₂ was generated in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS. Furthermore, the concentration of various active fractions involved in ENR removal was quantified by the steady-state concentrations method using BA, NB, NBT, and FFA as the probe compounds. As displayed in Fig. 6f, the steady-state concentration of ¹O₂, •OH, •O₂^{•−}, as well as SO₄^{•−} for C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS was calculated as 1.28×10^{-10} , 5.13×10^{-13} , 3.60×10^{-13} , and $1.07 \times 10^{-15} \text{ M}$ according to the formulas presented in Text S6, which was 1.60, 3.05, 1.00, and, 6.3 times than that of ¹O₂ ($8.00 \times 10^{-11} \text{ M}$), •OH ($1.68 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M}$), •O₂^{•−} ($3.46 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M}$), and SO₄^{•−} ($1.75 \times 10^{-16} \text{ M}$) in MoS₂-Fe/PMS system, respectively. These results were in good agreement with that of quenching and EPR experiments. The highest ¹O₂ concentration in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS illustrated that ¹O₂ was the predominant active component in ENR removal. It suggested that the great increase in ¹O₂ generation in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS significantly improved pollutants removal efficiency. In addition, the PMS decomposition rates in systems were tested (Fig. S8f). The decomposition efficiency of PMS was 71.5% in MoS₂-Fe/PMS, while the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS could reach 98.0%. It is also confirmed that C-MoS₂-Fe-2 played an important role in promoting the activation of PMS.

In order to further reveal the mechanism of ENR and Cr(VI) removal by C-MoS₂-Fe-2 activated PMS, the XPS of Fe 2p (Fig. 7a) and Mo 3d (Fig. 7b) of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 for different reaction times reaction were investigated, and more information was shown in Table S5. With reaction time increased (Fig. 7c and d), the Fe²⁺ content decreased from 75.5% (Before the reaction) to 49.0% (15 min) and then increased to 54% (30 min), while at the same time, the Fe³⁺ content increased from 25.5% (Before the reaction) to 51.0% (15 min) and then decreased to 46.0% (30 min). The content of Mo⁴⁺ dropped by 4.7% after the reaction, suggesting that Fe³⁺ was reduced to Fe²⁺ by Mo⁴⁺ and achieved its self-Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ cycling, thus maintaining the high catalytic activity. Fig. 7e and f illustrated the XPS spectra of Cr 2p and C 1 s of the catalyst after the reaction. The characteristic peaks at 576.7 eV and 586.5 eV, correspond to Cr 2p_{3/2} and Cr 2p_{1/2}, respectively, indicating the conversion of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) [64]. The C=O content of the C-MoS₂-Fe-2 decreased from 23.5% to 21.0%. The results indicate that a small amount of C=O can promote electron transfer as well as react with PMS to form ¹O₂ [65]. Moreover, the S 2p XPS spectra of the catalyst after the reaction was tested (Fig. S9). The decrease in the amount of the low valence sulfur from 100.0% to 95.0%, was attributed to the transfer of electrons from low-valent S to Fe³⁺.

According to the above works, the possible mechanism for the removal of ENR and Cr(VI) by the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system was proposed (Scheme 1), which was divided into two parts: oxidative

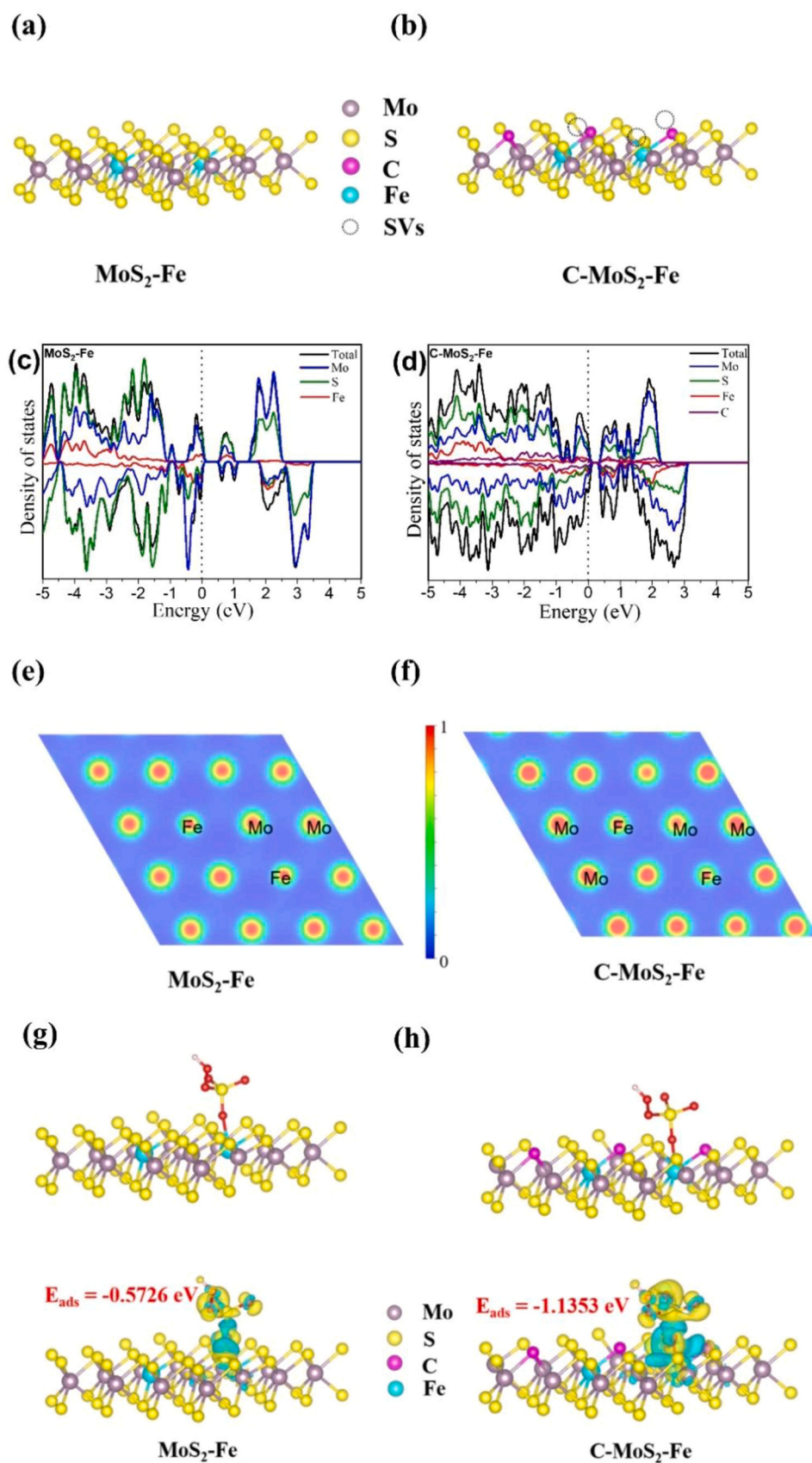


Fig. 5. Calculated DOS (c, d) and the charge density distributions (e, f) of $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ and $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-x}$ based on the optimized structure models (a, b). PMS adsorption configuration and energy of PMS on $\text{MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ (g) and $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe}$ (h).

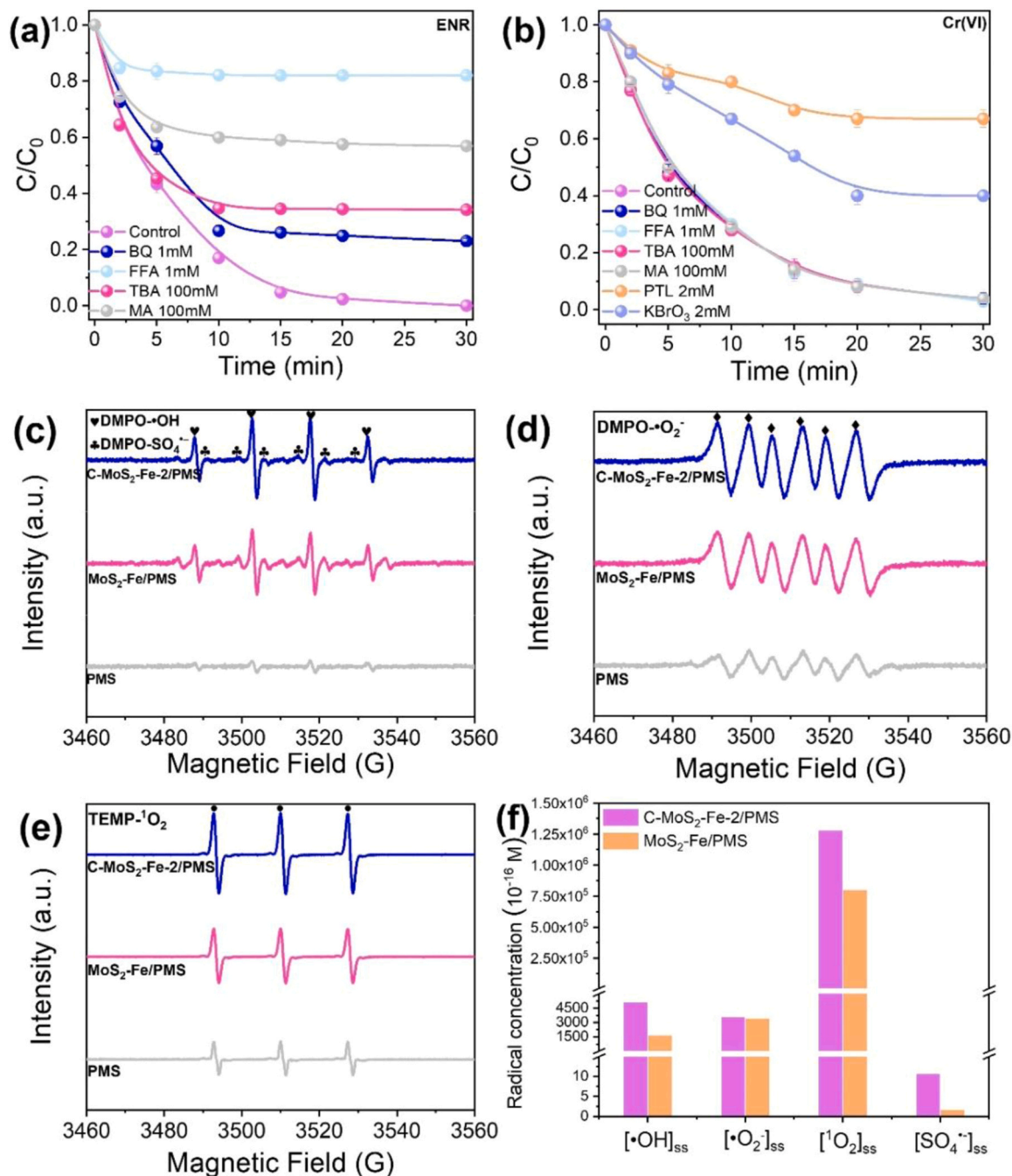
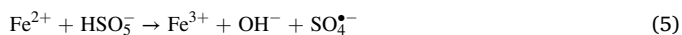


Fig. 6. Quenching tests of C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system (a, b). (Reaction condition: [catalyst] = 0.2 g L⁻¹, [PMS]₀ = 0.2 mM, [ENR]₀ = 10 mg L⁻¹, [Cr(VI)]₀ = 5 mg L⁻¹, [BQ]₀ = 1 mM, [FFA]₀ = 1 mM, [TBA]₀ = 100 mM, [MA]₀ = 100 mM, [PTL]₀ = 2 mM, [KBrO₃]₀ = 2 mM, pH 3). EPR spectra with DMPO (c, d) and TEMP (e) as spin-trapping agents in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS, MoS₂-Fe/PMS, and PMS systems. The steady-state concentrations of $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, $^1\text{O}_2$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS and MoS₂-Fe/PMS systems (f).

degradation of ENR and reduction of Cr(VI). On the one hand, possible processes for oxidative degradation of ENR were as follows: Firstly, Fe²⁺ in the catalyst activated PMS, generating $\bullet\text{OH}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and forming Fe³⁺ (Eqs. 5 and 6). Activated PMS can produce a small amount of H₂O₂ in water, which rapidly reacted with $\bullet\text{OH}$ to form $\bullet\text{O}_2\text{H}$, and then rapidly converted to $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ (Eq. 7–9) [66]. The generated Fe³⁺ was reduced to Fe²⁺ by Mo⁴⁺ in the catalyst (Eq. 10). Mo⁶⁺ further reacted with HSO₅⁻ and was reduced to Mo⁴⁺ and produced $\text{SO}_5^{\bullet-}$ (Eq. 11) [67]. Thus, the C-MoS₂-Fe-2 catalyst realized its own redox cycle of Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ and Mo⁴⁺/Mo⁶⁺, ensuring a large amount of active sites involved in the reaction process. In addition, $^1\text{O}_2$ was further produced as Eqs. 12–14

[68]. Secondly, the C=O of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 can be used as the active sites to directly decompose PMS to the production of $^1\text{O}_2$ (Eq. 15) [69–71]. At last, the presence of SVs also contributed to the production of $^1\text{O}_2$ (Eq. 16) [72]. ENR was effectively degraded to smaller molecules (Eq. 17).



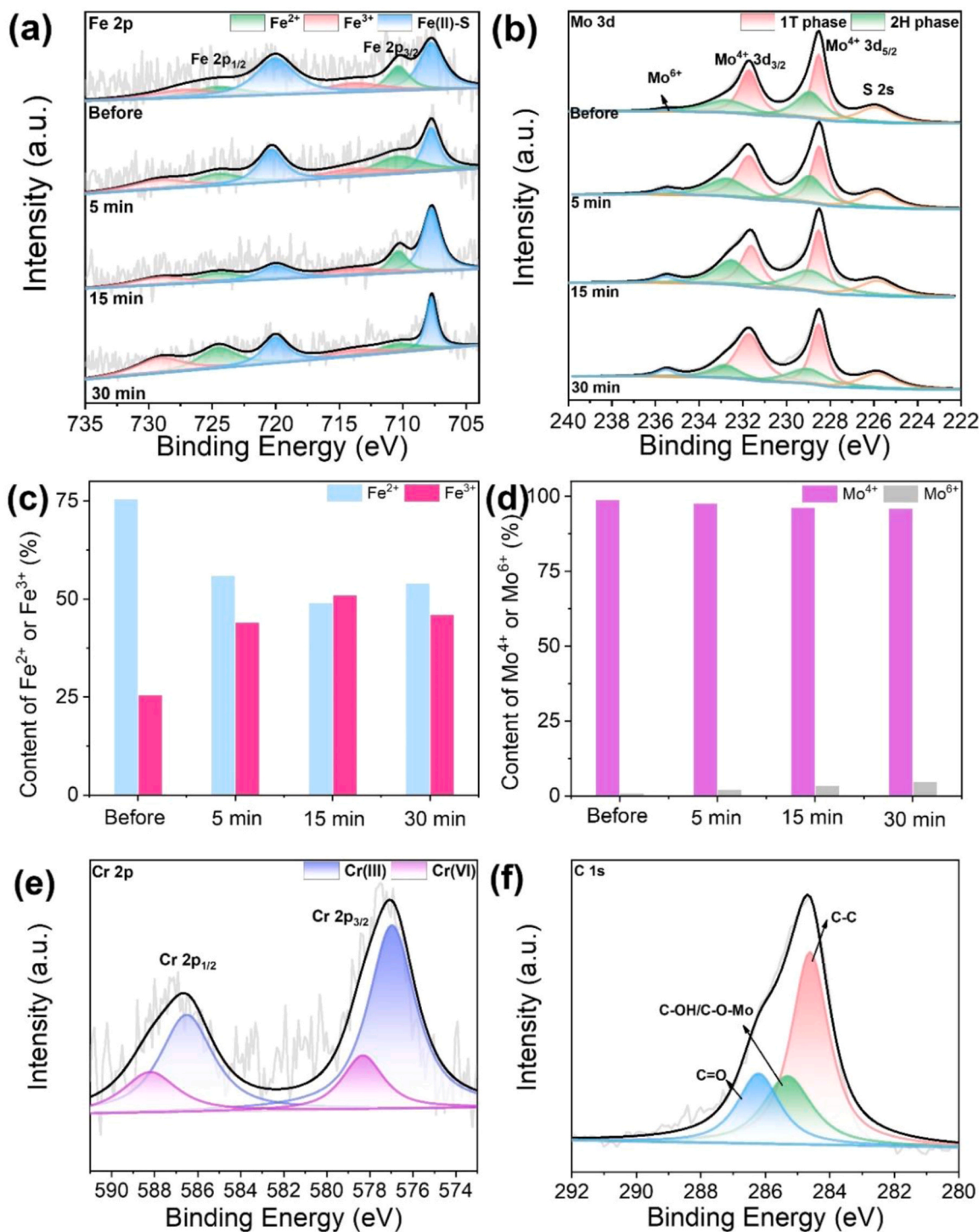
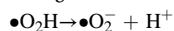
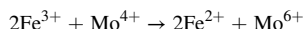


Fig. 7. XPS spectra of Fe 2p (a) and Mo 3d (b) of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 during the reaction. Corresponding content of Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ (c) and Mo⁴⁺/Mo⁶⁺ (d) of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 during the reaction. XPS spectra of Cr 2p (e), and C 1s (f) of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 after the reaction.



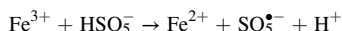
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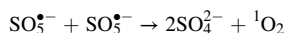
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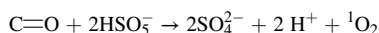
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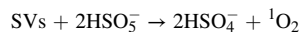
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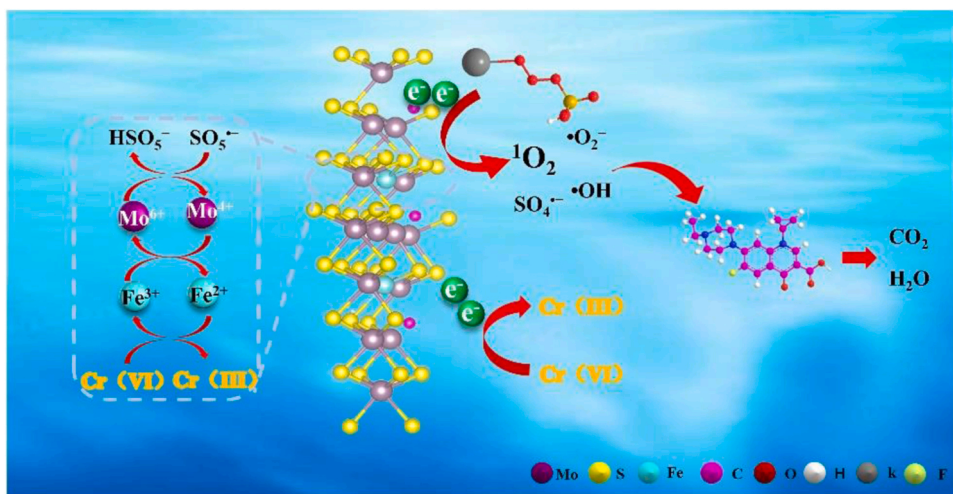


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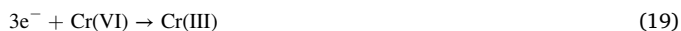
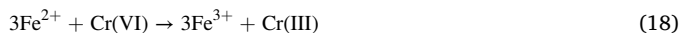
(17)

On the other hand, the possible mechanisms of Cr(VI) reduction were as follows. Cr(VI) was adsorbed onto the surface of C-MoS₂-Fe-2, which was then reduced to Cr(III) by Fe²⁺ in the catalyst (Eq. 18); meanwhile, the C-MoS₂-Fe-2 catalyst carried out its own Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ and Mo⁴⁺/Mo⁶⁺ redox cycling, which continually provided active sites to participate in



Scheme 1. Proposed mechanism in C-MoS₂-Fe/PMS system.

the reaction (Eqs. 10 and 11). In addition, the electrons present in the system can also reduce Cr(VI) (Eq. 19) [39].



Additionally, the synergistic removal of ENR and Cr(VI) was

investigated and the results were displayed in Fig. 8. As the concentration of Cr(VI) was increased from 2.5 mg L⁻¹ to 20 mg L⁻¹, the removal rate of ENR was consistently maintained at 100% (Fig. 8a) with no significant change in the reaction rate constant (Fig. 8c). This indicated that the addition of metal ions had little effect on the removal of ENR. However, with the increase of ENR concentration, although the removal

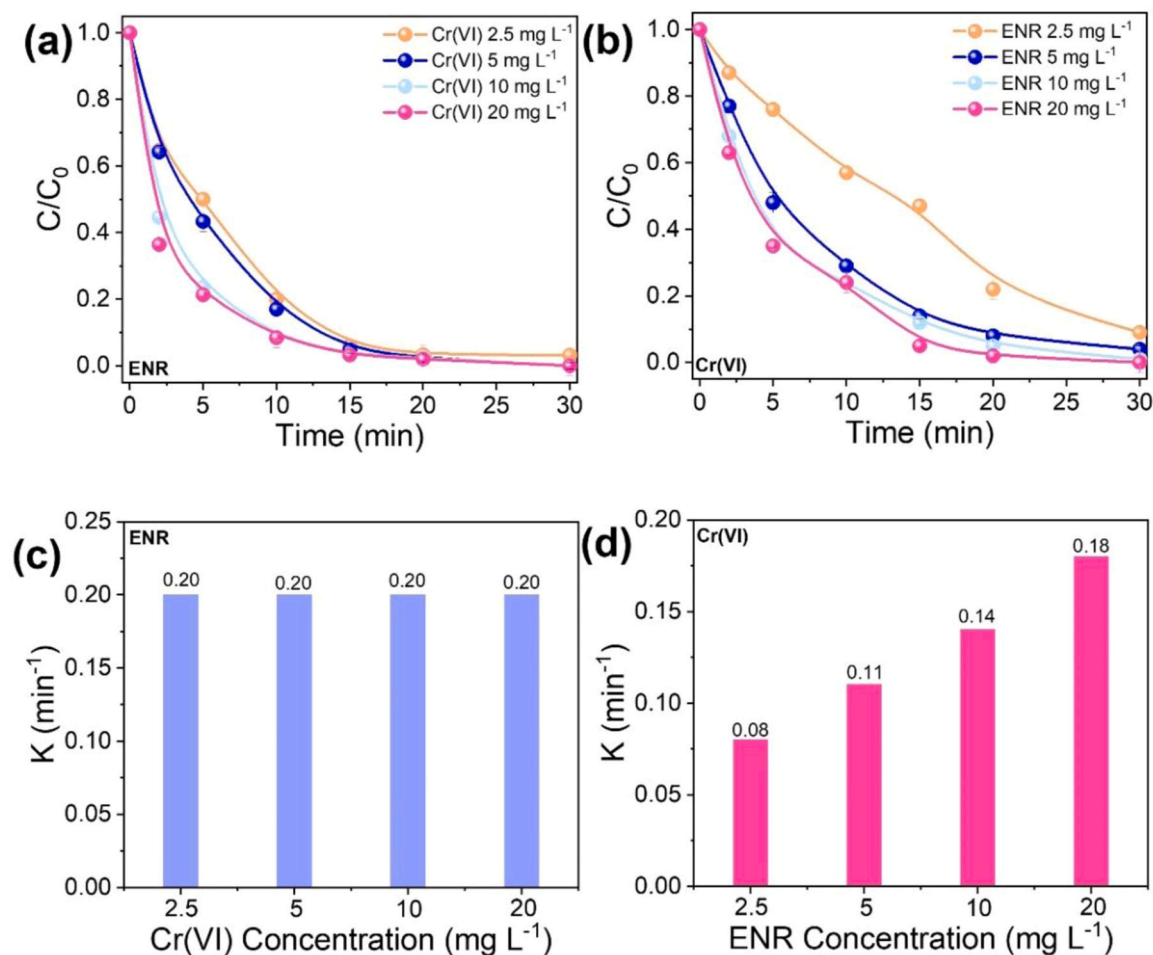


Fig. 8. The removal efficiency and kinetic rate constants under the co-existence of ENR (a, c) and Cr(VI) (b, d) with various initial Cr(VI) and ENR concentrations by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system. (General condition: [catalyst] = 0.2 g L⁻¹, [PMS]₀ = 0.2 mM, [ENR]₀ = 10 mg L⁻¹, [Cr(VI)]₀ = 5 mg L⁻¹, pH 3).

efficiency of Cr(VI) all reached 100% (Fig. 8b), the reaction rate constant increased significantly from 0.08 min^{-1} (2.5 mg L^{-1} ENR) to 0.18 min^{-1} (20 mg L^{-1} ENR) (Fig. 8d). Since the amount of catalyst involved in the reaction did not change at different ENR concentrations, the effect of Fe^{2+} in the catalyst on Cr(VI) reduction was the same, therefore, electron transfer might be a key factor in further promoting Cr(VI) reduction [39]. The charge transfer resistance of $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2} + \text{PMS} + \text{ENR}$ was smaller (Fig. S10), which suggested that the charge transfer between $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2-PMS}^*$ and ENR was faster [73]. The above electrochemical result demonstrated that $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2}$ can react with PMS via an electron-mediated process and produce $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2-PMS}^*$ complex. $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2-PMS}^*$ can increase the redox potential of the catalyst. When the redox potential of the catalyst exceeded the oxidation potential of the ENR, the electrons in ENR will be extracted by $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe-2-PMS}^*$ complex, and the higher the concentration of ENR, the more electrons were extracted, thus promoting the removal of Cr(VI).

3.4. ENR degradation pathways and toxicity

Fukui index based on DFT was first employed to predict the reaction sites of the ROS attacking for ENR molecule (Fig. 9a–d). According to the results, The C1, C8, C10, N18, and N31 positions exhibited higher f^- values, which indicated that these sites were more likely to be attacked in an electrophilic reaction. The C4, C7, C9, and C12 positions of ENR exhibited higher f^+ values than others, which translated to these sites being more vulnerable to attack for nucleophilic addition reactions [74, 75]. Then, the intermediates of ENR degradation were analyzed using LC-MS/MS, and the results were exhibited in Table S6 and Fig. S11a–l. Two possible degradation pathways of ENR were proposed by DFT calculations and intermediate product information (Fig. 9e), Pathway I: F atoms in the ENR ($A: m/z = 360$) were substituted by $-\text{OH}$ under the attack of ROS. After that, the ring cleavage reaction and decarboxylation were taken place to produce compounds B ($m/z = 358$) and C ($m/z = 334$). Further, the N18 was attacked to form the D ($m/z = 251$) product. Finally, the loss of a piperazine group and decarboxylation yielded E ($m/z = 139$) and F ($m/z = 111$). Pathway II: G ($m/z = 390$) and H ($m/z = 362$) were produced when the F atom was substituted; the

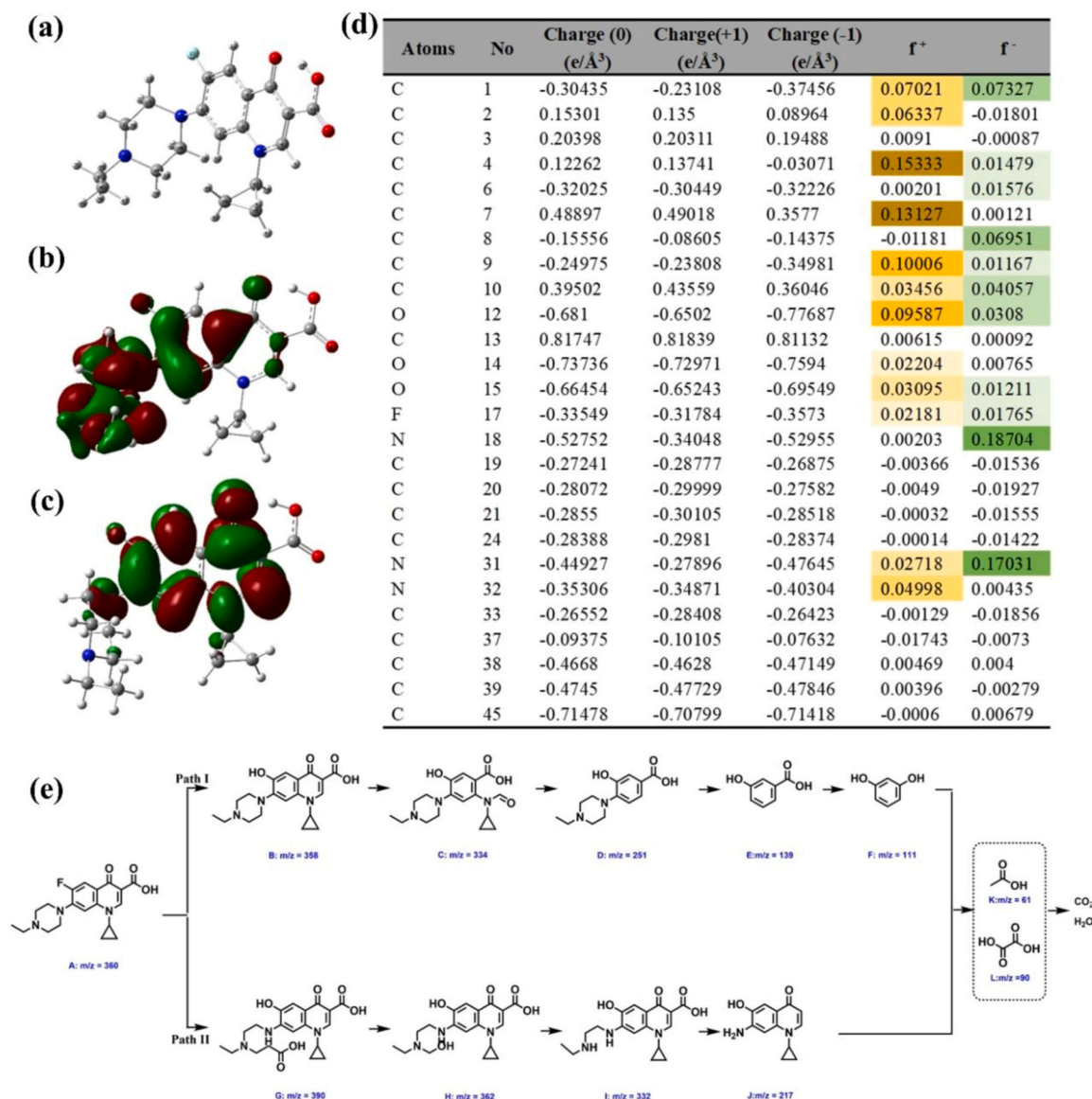


Fig. 9. Ball-and-stick model (a), HOMO (b), and LUMO (c) of ENR. Natural population analysis (NPA) charge and calculated Fukui index distribution (f^+ and f^-) (d). Probable pathways of ENR removal in $\text{C-MoS}_2\text{-Fe/PMS}$ system (e).

piperazine ring was then oxidized and opened to produce I ($m/z = 332$). Subsequently, a decarboxylation reaction occurred, and J ($m/z = 217$) was subsequently generated, after which N31 was oxidized. Finally, the formed compounds of F, and J would undergo the cleavage of piperazine rings to produce a series of small molecules K ($m/z = 61$) and L ($m/z = 90$), and further decarboxylated to eventually mineralize into CO_2 and H_2O [76].

To evaluate the toxicity of ENR and its intermediates, fathead minnow LC50, daphnia magna LD50, bioaccumulation factor, and mutagenicity were predicted by Quantitative Structure Activity Relationship (QSAR) using the Toxicity Evaluation Software Tool (T.E.S.T).

As shown in Fig. S12a, the LC50 of fathead minnow was 0.16 mg L^{-1} for ENR, which can be considered as “High toxic”, and as the reaction proceeded, the LC50 of the deep oxidation products K and L became “non-toxic” to fathead minnow (fathead minnow index indexes were 762.37 and 702.23 mg L^{-1} , respectively). DNR with a daphnia magna LD50 value of 2.31 mg L^{-1} , was recognized as a medium toxic chemical (Fig. S12b). All ENR intermediates turned to “low toxic” or “non-toxic” after the reaction. Fig. S12c revealed that the system can significantly reduce the bioaccumulation factor of all the intermediates. Fig. S12d illustrated that as the reaction proceeded further, the mutagenicity of ENR reduced to “mutagenicity negative”. Though the toxicity of some

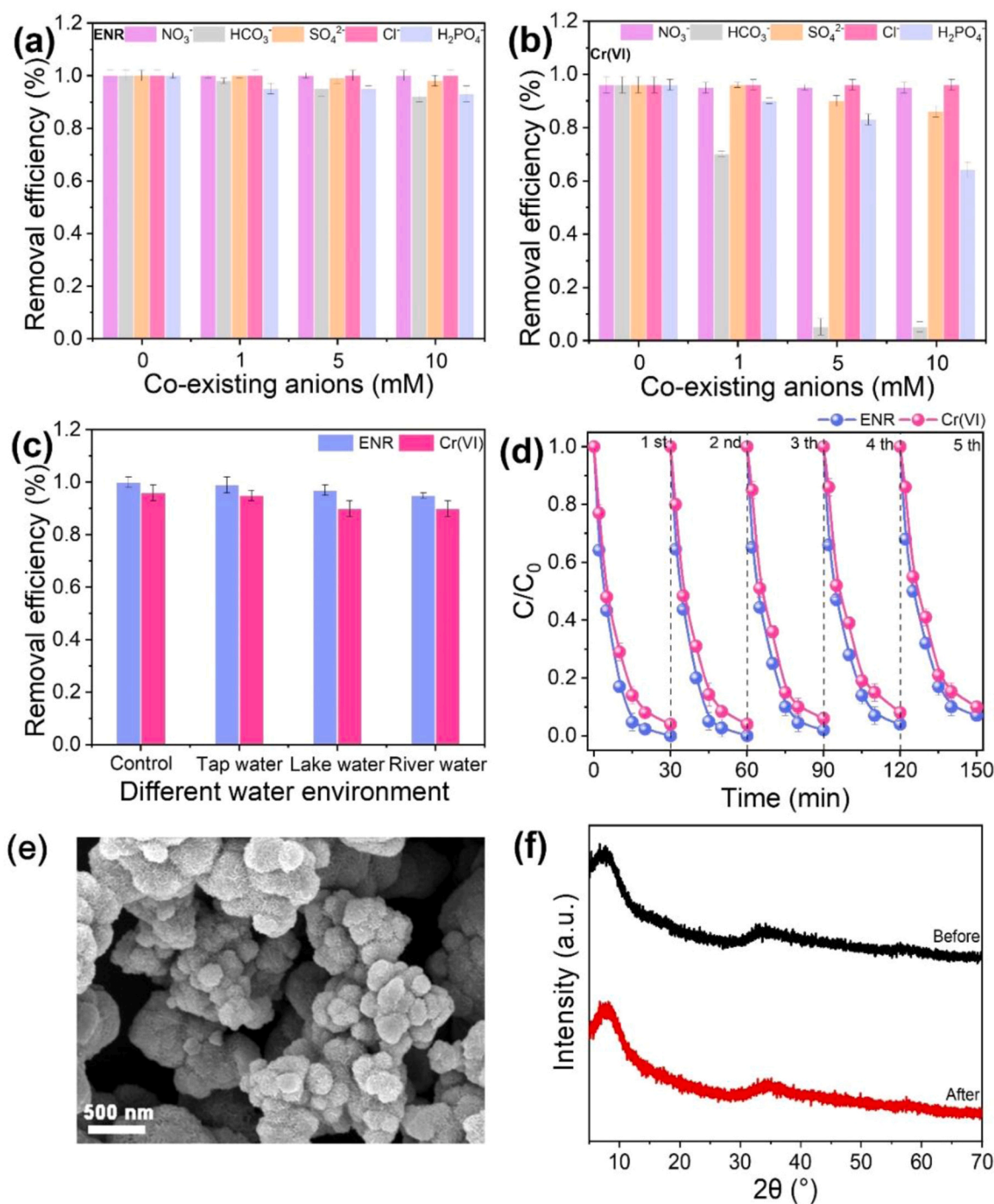


Fig. 10. Effects of NO_3^- , HCO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- and H_2PO_4^- ([anion] $_0 = 1, 5, 10 \text{ mM}$) on the removal efficiency under co-existence of ENR (a) and Cr(VI) (b) by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system. Different water environment (c) on the removal efficiency under the co-existence of ENR and Cr(VI) by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system. Removal efficiency of ENR and Cr(VI) reused five times (d). SEM image of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 after reaction (e). XRD patterns of C-MoS₂-Fe-2 before and after reaction (f).

ENR intermediates was higher than that of the parent compound, these results were adequate to demonstrate that the proposal of the system had a general toxicity attenuation effect and was a green ENR degradation technology. As shown in Fig. S13, the TOC removal efficiency of the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system within 30 min is 100.0%, suggesting that ENR can be effectively mineralized. The above results illustrate that the C-MoS₂-Fe-2 catalyst not only effectively activated the PMS to remove contaminants, but also effectively reduced the toxicity as well as TOC residual rate of the contaminants.

3.5. Potential application evaluation

The effect of inorganic anions such as NO₃⁻, HCO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, H₂PO₄⁻ as well as HA on the removal of ENR and Cr(VI) simultaneously by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS were discovered. As shown in Fig. 10a, NO₃⁻, HCO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and Cl⁻ did not show remarkable effects on the removal of ENR. Generally, Cl⁻ reacted with SO₄²⁻ and •OH, generating radicals with weak oxidation capacities (e.g., Cl•, Cl₂[•], and ClOH[•]) that inhibit the removal of organic pollutants [77]. Nevertheless, this inhibition was not evident in the system, suggesting that SO₄²⁻ and •OH were not mainly responsible for ENR removal. The efficiency of ENR removal decreased slightly with increasing H₂PO₄⁻ concentration. Previous studies reported that H₂PO₄⁻ has little inhibitory effect on nonradical-dominated catalytic processes [78]. As a result, the removal of ENR was virtually undisturbed by inorganic anions. As shown in Fig. 10b, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and Cl⁻ had little effect on the removal of Cr(VI). However, with the increase of HCO₃⁻ concentration, the removal efficiency of Cr(VI) decreased significantly. Partial hydrolysis of HCO₃⁻ increased the solution pH, thus further inhibiting the removal of Cr(VI) [79]. The removal efficiency of Cr(VI) decreased significantly with increasing H₂PO₄⁻ concentration, which may be attributed to the passivation of the reaction site. Moreover, the introduction of different concentrations of HA did not show remarkable effects on both ENR and Cr(VI) removal (Fig. S14). The above analysis indicated that the system had an excellent anti-interference capacity. In addition, the effects of different water environment on the removal effect of the co-existence of ENR and Cr(VI) were tested. More than 95.0% and 90.0% of ENR and Cr(VI) were removed in all systems (Fig. 10c).

The removal effect of co-existence of other heavy metal ions (Cu(II) or Ni(II)) and ENR by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system was also investigated. As shown in Fig. S15a and c, ENR was rapidly degraded while Cu(II) was efficiently reduced to Cu(I) in ENR and Cu(II) co-existence system. Trace Cu(II) can react with PMS to produce oxidizing Cu(III) [80]. However, the degradation of organic by Cu(III) requires a large amount of PMS and alkaline conditions [80]. And Chi et al. reported that Cu(II)/PMS could hardly degrade the target pollutant under acidic condition [81]. Therefore, Cu(II) tended to be adsorbed and reduced by C-MoS₂-Fe-2 [82,83]. The generated Cu(I) can achieve efficient activation of PMS and generate highly reactive radicals that further facilitate the removal of ENR [81,84]. Meanwhile, the presence of e⁻ in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system can also provide the special conditions with an efficient Cu(II)/Cu(I) reduction cycle [85]. Fig. S15b and d showed the removal effect of co-existence of ENR and Ni(II) by C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS. Both ENR and Ni(II) were removed to a certain extent. Generally, Ni(II) activation of PMS requires a high concentration of Ni(II) and a large amount of PMS [86]. So Ni(II) tended to be reduced to Ni(0) in C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS [87].

To verify the stability and reusability of C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS, 5 cycles of experiments were performed. As illustrated in Fig. 10d, the removal efficiency of the co-existence of ENR and Cr(VI) is 100.0% and 96.0% (1st run); 100.0% and 96.0% (2nd run); 98.2% and 94.3% (3rd run); 96.3% and 92.0% (4th run); 93.0% and 90.0% (5th run), respectively. Moreover, the morphology (Fig. 10e) and XRD patterns (Fig. 10f) of the catalyst before and after catalysis remained almost unchanged, suggesting that the morphology of the catalyst was unchanged and the skeleton structure was maintained well. Therefore, the system showed excellent reusability in the removal of pollutants. During the reaction,

1.8 mg L⁻¹ Mo was released, accounting for 0.009% of the total Mo content in catalyst, and 0.26 mg L⁻¹ Fe was released. These results further demonstrated the safety of the catalyst in the use process.

More importantly, C-MoS₂-Fe-2 was used to activate PMS for the treatment of real pharmaceutical wastewater in order to further evaluate the potential of the system in complex aqueous environments, and some of the conventional water quality indicators were shown in Table S7. The COD of the original water sample was 9120 mg L⁻¹, which was reduced to 7680 mg L⁻¹ after 30 min of reaction, and further reduced to 6816 mg L⁻¹ after 60 min of reaction. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. S16, the chromaticity of the water samples decreased significantly from the initial 64 to 4 after 60 min of reaction. Therefore, the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system demonstrated excellent treatment effects on real pharmaceutical wastewater.

4. Conclusions

In summary, ethylene glycol was introduced to induce the preparation of 1 T/2 H mixed-phase defect-rich carbon-doped MoS₂-Fe (C-MoS₂-Fe-x) using a hydrothermal method. Benefitting from the synergistic effect of the introduction of 1 T phase and abundant S defects, C-MoS₂-Fe-x had an excellent ability to synchronously remove ENR and Cr(VI) via PMS activation. Experiments and DFT calculations showed that C doping changed the surface charge distribution of MoS₂-Fe and increased the conductivity and reactivity of the catalyst, thus favoring the activation of PMS. In addition, the large number of Mo⁴⁺ sites exposed to C-MoS₂-Fe promoted the self-Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ cycling of the catalyst, ensuring the number of active sites involved in the reaction. Quenching experiments, EPR tests, and electrochemical experiments revealed the effects of ¹O₂ as the main ROS and electron transfer on synergistic removal ENR and Cr(VI) in the system. The system still maintained a certain degree of removal efficiency for pollutants under the influence of different environmental factors. In addition, the C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS system was able to purify real pharmaceutical wastewater with considerable efficiency. The present study provided a new idea for the development of efficient green non-homogeneous catalysts combining homogeneous iron ions and inorganic co-catalysts, and the constructed C-MoS₂-Fe-2/PMS exhibited certain practicability for the treatment of real pharmaceutical wastewater.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Liu Jingyu: Writing – original draft, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Hu Yongyou:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Li Xian:** Software. **Xiao Chun:** Software. **Yuan Bowen:** Software. **Cheng Jianhua:** Funding acquisition. **Chen Yuancai:** Funding acquisition. **Zhu Xiaoqiang:** Project administration. **Wang Guobin:** Resources, Project administration. **Xie Jieyun:** Project administration.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that there are no competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.123818](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.123818).

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